SCHOOL LIFE

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

OFFICE OF EDUCATION

The Commissioner Reports to the Nation

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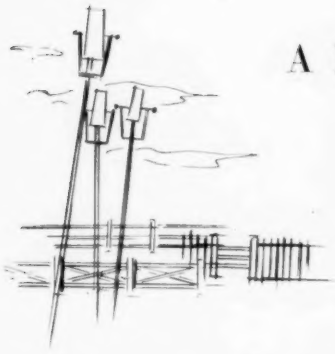
December 1957

ACROSS A HIGHER FENCE



COMMUNICATION has never been a simple matter—even the old-fashioned visit over the back fence sometimes led to neighborhood misunderstandings. But communication in this day and age is very complex. The fence is getting higher!

Today, communication techniques are expensive and intricate; information is complicated; more people are seeking to communicate more items; and messages are dulled by an impersonal tone. To make matters worse, facts are sometimes distorted in an effort to win support for a particular viewpoint.

Yet, clear, honest communication is essential to all of our efforts to improve education. Some of our school problems may be attributed to the fact that, in the past, educators have spent too much time talking to each other and not enough time talking with the public.

If we are going to obtain adequate financial support for our schools, we must step up communication with the taxpaying citizen. Our story must be told clearly and continuously, if we are to compete with all of the other messages beamed to the eye and ear of the parent and the man on the street.

Fortunately, we are doing a better job of getting our message across to the public. The work of the National School Public Relations Association, the new radio-TV efforts of NEA, and the generous public service time contributed by both national and local broadcasting companies are doing a great deal to open up communications with vast numbers of people.

When the public knows the school story and when it is convinced of the vital contribution of education, it will respond with typical American generosity.

But in our efforts to communicate with the public, we must not neglect our efforts to communicate within the profession. The Office of Education, for example, needs to communicate better and faster with its counterpart in each State, if it is adequately to "promote the cause of education."

We in the profession would be well advised to put more effort, more personnel, and more money into communication. The public and the profession have a right to know what's going on!

Lawrence G. Derthick

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE . . . . MARION B. FOLSOM, *Secretary*
OFFICE OF EDUCATION . . . . . LAWRENCE G. DERTHICK, *Commissioner*

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Educational news

EVENTS AND DEVELOPMENTS

of national significance

Human Rights Day

ON the 10th day of this month the United States will join 57 other nations—all signers of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights—in observing Human Rights Day.

President Eisenhower has issued a proclamation to the people of the United States, calling attention to the ninth anniversary of the adoption of the declaration. He asks all Americans to join citizens of other nations of the world in recognizing this special day, saluting, as it does, the humanity and brotherhood of all men.

Emphasis in the celebration this year is on educational institutions and organizations and teachers. The U. S. National Commission for UNESCO, planner of the observance, hopes through educational agencies to lay the groundwork for next year's anniversary celebration. Many educational organizations and professional groups of educators have indicated their approval of the observance.

Among the materials prepared for distribution to individuals and organizations for Human Rights Day use is the Office of Education publication *How Children Learn About Human Rights.*

Adults in the classroom

IF your household was one of the 35,000 over the United States responding to the questions of the October Sample Population Survey of the Bureau of the Census, it took part in a "first" for the Bureau and for educational statistics. For this sample included two questions never before asked of the public by the census taker. The Fund for Adult Education financed their inclusion in the October Sample Population Survey:

- In what type of adult education activity did you take part in the past 12 months?
- By what institution was the activity conducted?

Two groups of adults answered these questions: Those 14 through 34 years of age not enrolled in regular classes and *all* adults over 35.

To find how many adults were in school and where they took courses, the Bureau's sample asked many specific questions. For instance, it inquired into the type of classes. Were they cultural? Recreational? Were they taken to further a career or to acquire a skill? The sample then asked about the organization sponsoring the courses. Was it the public school system or the public library? An employer or a trade union? A civic agency? Or a private business or technical school?

From a study of the replies the Office of Education believes it will obtain the first "head count" of adults pursuing education outside regular schools. It should learn, too, the types of classes adults take and where they take them.

The Office estimates that it can report next April on what it has found on adult education through the Bureau of the Census sample.

Should the results of the questions prove worthwhile, the Office would like the questions to become recurring and to be included in the 1960 general census.

Report to the Nation

CITIZENS of the United States will hear, via radio and television in mid-December, the first annual report to the Nation from Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick about the problems and progress of education in 1957.

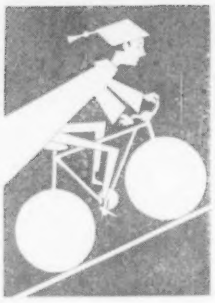
Commissioner Derthick will discuss, for instance, good and bad school plants; teacher and classroom shortages; the use of teacher aids; the dropout problem; and the effects of Federal aid for school construction in communities where United States Government activities have increased the population.

To produce the program, staff members of the Westinghouse Broadcasting Co., sponsor of the 45-minute presentation, and specialists in the Office of Education are working with Rod MacLeish, WBC, and Carroll Hanson, OE. They are also preparing a 30-minute version of the program, for the use of other commercial stations, educational TV stations, and interested groups.

Radio stations of the Westinghouse network are WBX and WBZA, Boston; KDKA, Pittsburgh; KYW, Cleveland; WOWO, Fort Wayne; WIND, Chicago; and KEX, Portland (Oreg.). Its television stations are WBZ–TV, Boston; KDKA–TV, Pittsburgh; KYW–TV, Cleveland; KPIX, San Francisco; and WJZ–TV, Baltimore.

A Year at College

What Does It Cost?



LAST MONTH the Office of Education published *Costs of Attending College: A Study of Student Expenditures and Sources of Income*, by Ernest V. Hollis. The half of the report that deals with expenditures is briefly summarized here.

The publication itself (Bul. 1957, No. 9, 91 pages) is available from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 45 cents a copy.

TO the prospective student's question, "How much will it cost me to go to college?" a conscientious man, even though he had all the data at his disposal, probably would preface his reply with, "It all depends."

And he would be right. It *does* depend.

It depends, for one thing, on the school the student chooses. If it's a public college, especially if it's in his own State, it will probably cost him less than if it's private. If it's located in New England, it may well cost more than schools in other sections of the country, partly for the simple reason that private schools predominate in northeastern United States.

It depends on the income of the student's family. If it's low, he's likely to go to a low-cost college in the first place, and, once there, to keep the careful spending habits he grew up with.

It depends, too, on where the student lives during the school year. Living at home will probably give him some cost advantage over the other students; living in a club or in a fraternity house is just as likely to give him none. Living in a dormitory or in a private home other than his own usually places him somewhere between the two extremes.

It depends even on the student's sex. Generally speaking, men spend more than women in college—partly because they spend more for a little item called "entertainment" but chiefly because a larger percent of the women attend low-cost institutions. Only in families with incomes over $15,000 are the daughters more likely than the sons to go to expensive schools.

ALL these qualifying statements are only generalizations, it is true; and as such they have their exceptions. But they are based on thousands of student budgets and they reflect the findings in the first comprehensive study ever made in the United States of what undergraduates spend during a year in college and where they get the money.

This study was made in 1953, by Ernest V. Hollis, director of the College and University Administration Branch in the Office of Education, and his associates. They asked 15,316 single, full-time undergraduate students at 110 colleges in 41 States and the District of Columbia to itemize their expenditures and income during the school year 1952–53. They asked not only for current expenses but for the amount of money spent on capital goods—items that would have more than 1 year's use, such as typewriters, slide rules, and scientific and musical instruments, as well as radios, record players, television sets, musical instruments, automobiles, and expensive jewelry.

When they had the replies to their questionnaire, Dr. Hollis and his staff grouped current expenditures under two heads: (1) Educational costs, for tuition, fees, books, and instructional supplies and equipment; and (2) living costs, for room, board, clothes, travel, and so forth. With this breakdown they make it possible for any user of the data to project the 1952–53 costs into 1957–58 by just adding enough to match the price increases of the intervening years—15 percent for educational costs, 5 percent for the ordinary costs of living.

The 110 colleges covered by the survey represent both privately controlled and publicly controlled institutions, and each of the two groups include universities, technological schools, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and junior colleges. They therefore are fairly representative of the 1,886 colleges in the United States. But the men who made the study say that their student sample was somewhat weighted in favor of less expensive schools and suggest that the reader add $85 to the average total cost figure to bring it closer to the true national average.

WHAT the students said they spent during 1952-53 for current items varied widely. The smallest annual expenditure reported was $200; the largest was $5,500, though only a few went above $3,000. Half of the students spent less than $1,219; half spent more; and the middle half ranged somewhere between $815 and $1,708.

Above the seemingly endless variety, however, one fact stands out clearly: College costs are at the highest point in history. And out of all the variety there emerge some means, or averages, that may serve as guideposts, not only to prospective students and their parents but to college administrators, foundation officials, private donors, and others concerned

with the college student's financial dilemma:

▶ For the *Nation as a whole*, the average student spent $1,300 for current expenditures, less than one-sixth of it for educational costs. In addition, he spent $88 for capital goods (actually only 55 percent of the students reported spending anything for capital goods; for those who did, the average was $163). If he lived at home, his current expenditures were about $1,000; if in some other private home or dormitory, about $350 more; if in a club or fraternity house, still another $300.

▶ *Each region* had its own average current expenditure per student. In the Northeast it was $1,676; in the South, $1,164. In between were the West's $1,209 and the North Central States' $1,262.

▶ In the *publicly controlled institution* the average current expenditure per student was $1,120. About 18 percent of it went for tuition and fees. If, besides, the student spent the average $163 for capital expenditures, his total budget in 1952–53 was $1,283. Add to this figure the price increases that since have occurred—roughly, $200—and you will arrive at a fair estimate of what the student in a publicly controlled college is spending on the average this year: $1,483.

His cost figures depend somewhat on the *kind* of public college he attends. In 1952–53 they were highest at the technological institution ($1,283); lowest at the junior college ($868); and somewhere in between at the teachers college ($951), the liberal arts college ($1,022), and the university ($1,255).

▶ In the *privately controlled institution*, on the other hand, the average annual current expenditure per student in 1952–53 was $1,674. All along the line—for board, room, clothes, travel, and the rest—the private-college student spent just a little more than his counterpart at the public college; but it was what he spent for tuition and fees (one-third of his budget) that was most responsible for the $554 difference between public and private averages.

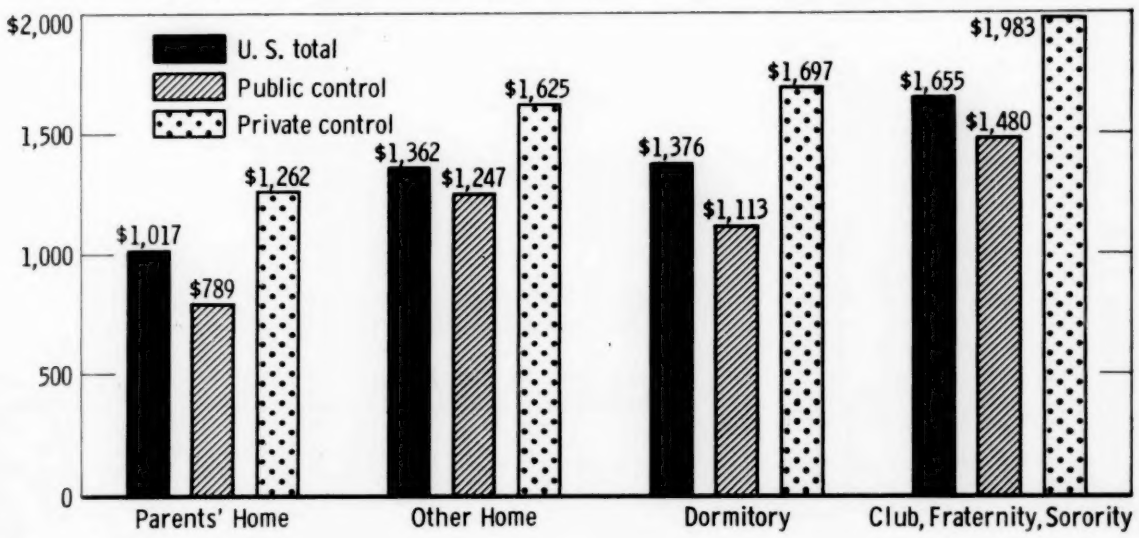
Now, 5 years later, the average annual expenditure per student in privately controlled institutions is estimated at $2,037, including both current and capital expenditures.

For the private-college student, too, the kind of college makes a difference in the cost. In 1952–53 his current expenditures were above the average for private schools if he attended a junior college ($1,762) or a university ($1,754) but below the average if he attended a technological institution ($1,532) or a liberal arts college ($1,432).

FROM these averages," say the researchers in the Office of Education, "individual student expenditures vary widely. What constitutes an acceptable budget is also complicated by the fact that there are economy expenditure colleges, average expenditure colleges, and high expenditure colleges. . . .

"These variations, essentially similar to the variations among the homes from which the students come, compose the pattern most acceptable in a free society. One precaution is necessary, however, if we are to maintain and spread the doctrine of equality of opportunity. Since economy budgeters are in the majority and increasing, they must be made to feel at home on enough campuses to provide them with a high quality education. Society must be constantly aware that only as these capable young people are enabled to develop their talents can the United States maintain its place of leadership among the free nations of the world."

In both publicly and privately owned colleges, current expenditures per student vary with the type of residence



Concentrated attention on science and mathematics throughout the elementary-secondary grades is one feature of

EDUCATION IN THE USSR

WHEN the Office of Education in November published the report of its 2-year study on *Education in the USSR*, the Soviet Union had just sent the first two manmade satellites spinning around the earth; and Americans everywhere were turning to each other with an uneasy question: "Why *they*, and not *we*?"

Thus they came out together: the question, and a book that perhaps holds part of the answer. For the book tells the story of an educational system shaped, from beginning to end, to serve the ambitions of a State, particularly as those ambitions point toward world supremacy in science and technology.

The juxtaposition of events naturally draws the Soviet emphasis on science and technology into sharp focus, although the Office study presents it as only one feature—certainly as a significant feature—of a complex system. However, because current events have given it exceptional prominence, *School Life* here reviews a few of the details which describe how that emphasis is being achieved.

To specialists of the Office of Education who are familiar with the Soviet system, the single-minded concentration that the Soviet State is expending on the production of scientists and technicians shows itself not so much in counts of children studying the sciences and mathematics as in the way those subjects are being taught.

In the USSR, elementary-secondary education consists of a 10-year program for youth between the ages of 7 and 17 or 18 years; it is compulsory through grade 7 and available in cities and industrial centers through grade 10. By 1960 the Soviets hope to have the 10-year program available throughout the USSR. The State decides what the curriculum will be, and there are no electives. Systematic attention to science and mathematics begins in the first grade.

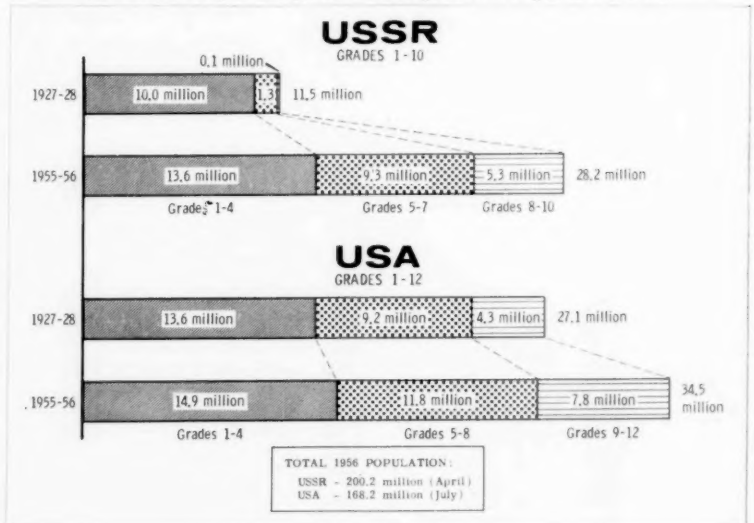
For the first 5 years, mathematics is only arithmetic; but it is arithmetic so intensively taught, 1 hour a day, 6 days a week, that by the end of those 5 years the pupil is expected to be able to manage fractions, decimals, percentages, and proportions, and to know what to do with a slide rule and an arithmometer. In grade 6 he is introduced to algebra and geometry, which he continues to study—at first along with arithmetic—for the remaining 5 years. Gradually he moves from simple concepts to complex; and he stays with each subject so long that his understanding of it becomes a permanent part of his mental equipment. At last, in grades 9 and 10, he takes both trigonometry and calculus—2 hours of each every week.

In natural science the pattern is the same. For the first 3 years instruction is informal; but thereafter natural science becomes a separate subject, with no less than 2 hours and as many as 8 devoted to it every week each year. A systematic presentation of inanimate nature comes first, in grade 4; botany takes over in grade 5, to show the anatomy and physiology of vegetation, and continues in grade 6, to give a survey of the basis of systemization. Even these first 3 years of science as a separate subject include laboratory experiments and observation by microscope, as well as homework in the summers to give practice in applying techniques and methods. In grade 7 the pupil moves on to zoology, hygiene, and sex instruction; in grade 9, to the principles of Darwinism; in 10, to general psychology.

Physics is studied over a period of 5 years, beginning with the rudiments of mechanics and hydrodynamics in grade 6 and ending with a detailed and systematic approach to aerodynamics in grade 10. Chemistry starts in grade 7, as a short outline of the main chemical conceptions, and ends in grade 10 as an introduction to organic chemistry. In grade 10 the whole science spiral is crowned with a year of astronomy.

The Soviet State seeks continuity of instruction not only through the curriculum but also through the use of teaching staff. It is the custom for the primary-school teacher to advance with her class, from grade 1 through grade 4. After that, teachers

Total enrollments, elementary-secondary grades, USSR and USA, 1927–28 and 1955–56 (U. S. figures include private and public schools)



Enrollment in U. S. public high schools in certain science and mathematics courses expressed as the percentage of pupils in grades where course is usually offered, fall 1956

COURSE	PERCENT OF PUPILS ENROLLED
General Science (9th)	67.3
Biology	74.0
Chemistry	34.4
Physics	24.5
General Mathematics (9th)	43.1
Elementary Algebra	67.0
Plane Geometry	41.6
Intermediate Algebra	32.2
Trigonometry	9.2
Solid Geometry	7.6

SOURCE: Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools (OE Pamphlet No. 120)

of specialized subjects take over; they, too, as a rule, follow their classes from grade to grade. In many schools, for example, the same teacher teaches all physics classes, from grades 6 to 10.

All these courses in science and mathematics add up to a big share of the work required for graduation from the Soviet elementary-secondary schools. In 1955–56, *Education in the USSR* reports, they came close to taking up one-half of the time allotted to all subjects in the 10-year program:

Subject	*Percent of time allotted*
HUMANITIES	
Russian language and literature	28.3
History	6.7
Constitution of USSR	.3
Geography	4.9
Foreign language	6.7
TOTAL	46.9
SCIENCES AND RELATED TECHNICAL TRAINING	
Mathematics	20.1
Biology	4.0
Physics	5.6
Astronomy	.3
Chemistry	3.5
Psychology	.3
Drafting	1.3
Practicums	2.0
Visits to industrial and scientific sites	1.9
Technical practice	3.4
TOTAL	42.4
OTHER TRAINING	
Physical and military training	6.7
Drawing and singing	4.0
TOTAL	10.7
GRAND TOTAL	100.0

Whatever the virtues of the Soviet emphasis on science and mathematics, the fact remains that it has been accomplished at the expense of the humanities. And in the Soviet Union the term "humanities" is used to include subjects that lend themselves more to political indoctrination than to a freeing of the human spirit. It is to this very point—the sacrifice of the free mind, which seems inherent in the Soviet educational program—that Commissioner Derthick referred in a statement he made on November 11, when he released the report, *Education in the USSR:*

"I believe the American concept of education, and the resources available to American young people for the pursuit of learning, are unsurpassed. We in America know that freedom is indispensable to good education, that liberty of mind accomplishes more than regimentation.

"It would be tragic, therefore, if the evolution of education in the USSR should be considered as any cause to question our basic concepts of freedom in education. Rather, it should challenge every American to reexamine the extent to which we as a people support our democratic system of education. It should, in fact, challenge Americans to take new interest in meeting the needs of our schools, colleges, and universities as they serve the purposes of our society: Freedom, peace, and the fullest development of the individual."

Changes in enrollments in mathematics and science in U. S. public secondary schools (grades 9–12) and related data, 1948–49 and 1956–57

ITEM	TYPICAL GRADE	ENROLLMENTS 1948–49	ENROLLMENTS 1956–57	PERCENT OF INCREASE
SUBJECT				
General Science	9	1,074,000	1,518,000	41.3
Biology	10	996,000	1,430,000	43.6
Chemistry	11	412,000	520,000	26.2
Physics	12	291,000	310,000	6.5
Other Science	9–12	155,000	265,000	70.9
TOTAL	9–12	2,928,000	4,043,000	38.1
Elementary Algebra	9	1,042,000	1,518,000	45.7
Intermediate Algebra	11	372,000	484,000	30.1
General Mathematics	9	650,000	976,000	50.2
Plane Geometry	10	599,000	788,000	31.6
Solid Geometry	12	94,000	160,000	70.2
Trigonometry	13	109,000	200,000	83.5
Other Mathematics	9–12	91,000	275,000	202.2
TOTAL	9–12	2,957,000	4,401,000	48.8
POPULATION				
Age 14		2,126,000	2,556,000	20.2
Age 15		2,140,000	2,393,000	11.8
Age 16		2,231,000	2,292,000	2.7
Age 17		2,206,000	2,300,000	4.3
Age 14–17		8,703,000	9,541,000	9.6
ENROLLMENT				
Grade 9		1,641,000	2,254,000	37.4
Grade 10		1,491,000	1,933,000	29.6
Grade 11		1,242,000	1,513,000	21.8
Grade 12		1,026,000	1,263,000	23.1
Grade 9–12		5,399,000	6,963,000	29.0

SOURCE: Offerings and Enrollments in Science and Mathematics in Public High Schools (OE Pamphlet No. 120)

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THE COOPERATIVE EDUCATI

approaches i

Ten New Projects are Recommended

OUT of the 47 research proposals that the Office of Education's Research Advisory Committee met to review on October 24–25, it selected 10 to recommend to the Commissioner as projects to receive support under the Federal Government's Cooperative Educational Research Program. Most of the research will probably start within the next 3 months.

At present the program's project count stands at 93. No. 93, the only project not already reported in *School Life*, was signed into contract on October 2, 1957, with the Wyoming State Board of Education. Its goal is to discover the extent to which children of the State are misplaced, either as normal or as mentally retarded, and to demonstrate that the State can have a systematic program for objectively identifying all mentally retarded children. Director of the project, which is planned for completion within a year, is Velma Linford, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Of the 10 proposals just now recommended by the Advisory Committee, one would deal with mentally retarded children. The others would explore such various subjects as language development in children, personality changes wrought by a college education, relation between teacher behavior and pupil achievement in elementary grades, fiscal relations of State departments of education, compatibility of personal goals and organizational requirements in a school system, identification and development of unusual talent in high school students, definitive criteria for junior college community-service programs, and the use of both prediction and classification methods in counseling students in their choice of college majors.

The 9-member committee that made the recommendations has a somewhat different roster for this second year of its existence. Three vacancies occurred at the end of the first year, owing to the fact that three members had been appointed for 1 year only; and appointees named for 3-year terms now take their places. One, Ralph W. Tyler, director of the Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences, Stanford, Calif., was reappointed. The others are Finis E. Engleman, executive secretary of the American Association of School Administrators and formerly Connecticut's commissioner of education; and Chester W. Harris, professor of education at the University of Wisconsin and editor of the 1960 *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, formerly editor of the *Review of Educational Research*.

The Committee next meets in January 1958, when it will review all proposals received in the Office between September 1 and January 1. It is possible that some proposals recommended at that meeting will be negotiated into contract in time for research to begin during the second semester. Anyone planning to apply for Federal support of a project should write for instructions, addressing themselves to the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

During its first 16 months OE's Cooperative Research Program has accumulated these totals (from July 1, 1956, to Nov. 1, 1957)

Proposals reviewed by the Research Advisory Committee	**363**
Proposals recommended to the Commissioner by the Committee	**118**
Projects signed into contract:	
In education of the mentally retarded*	**46**
In other fields	**47**
Total	**93**
Federal funds obligated through 1957–58:	
For education of the mentally retarded*	**$1,695,002**
For other fields	**$1,089,071**
Total	**$2,784,073**

***Projects on education of mentally retarded are singled out here because of special emphasis that has been placed on this field.**

****Most of the contracts signed are for projects that will run more than 1 year—some, for as long as 5 and 6 years. Thus, in addition to the $2.8 million obligated through 1957–58, another $2.5 million in Federal funds will be required for projects continuing beyond this year—making a total of more than $3.5 million Federal dollars for the first 93 contracts. After 1957–58, of course, each year's payments are contingent on Congress' appropriating funds for that year.**

In addition to the Federal funds, there are contributions from the participating institutions and agencies, usually in the form of services and facilities. In the first 93 contracts, it is estimated, these contributions defray about 37 percent of the total cost.

cal year

ONAL RESEARCH PROGRAM

its 100th project, produces its first findings

The First Project Reports Its Findings

MENTALLY retarded children are markedly inferior to normal children in the way they use their hands and bodies to perform the basic skills believed to be important in the games and sports of childhood.

This is what two professors of education at the University of Wisconsin concluded after 6 months of testing the motor performance of mentally retarded children and comparing it with published standards for normal children. Their research was supported as one of the projects under the Federal Government's cooperative research program in education; and their report of work completed was the first to be accepted by the Office of Education under the program.

To 284 mentally retarded children in the public schools of Madison and Milwaukee, Wis., Robert J. Francis and G. Lawrence Rarick gave a battery of 11 motor performance tests designed to measure such attributes as muscular strength, speed of running, power of jumping and throwing, body balance, and body agility. In addition, to 25 institutionalized children with very low IQ's they gave 6 performance tests within the range of ability of normal preschool children. Among the results were these, none of which could be attributed to body size, since at each age level the retarded children had weight and height equal to the published norms for normal children:

- In general body ability, mentally retarded 14-year-olds failed to reach standards set for normal 8-year-olds.
- In running speed, mentally retarded 14-year-olds were at the level of normal 10-year-olds.
- In strength, mentally retarded children were 1 to 3 years behind normal children.
- In dynamic power of the muscles, slow learners were retarded as much as 4 years.
- Motor achievement of the institutionalized children, although they had an average age of 10 years, fell within the performance range of normal 3- and 4-year-olds.
- Not only in motor skills of reasonably high organization but also in activities that require primarily brute strength only, mentally retarded children were markedly subnormal; and at each advance in age level their deviations from the normal tended to become greater.

"These data," Drs. Francis and Rarick say, "provide rather definite evidence of the extent of motor retardation of the slow learner." In fact, the extent is perhaps greater than has been previously supposed. However, the factors underlying the retardation must await further investigation. The fact that at certain age levels the motor performance curves showed some unusual peaks indicates that the sample at those age levels contained some high-quality performers, and suggests that under conditions well suited to motor learning the slow learner can attain higher levels. While it is likely that the slow learning child has difficulty in profiting from his experience and does not possess the native talent required for continued growth in motor skills, it is also possible that adequate learning opportunities are not being provided. The fact that the study found a greater lag in skills of a complex nature than in those involving natural movement patterns suggests that at least minimum intelligence is of considerable importance in the execution of certain skills.

The findings clearly indicate that such qualities as strength, speed, power, balance, and agility show practically the same interrelationships in mentally retarded children as in normal children; and they strongly suggest that any instructional procedure designed to improve performance probably should be basically the same as that now used with normal children.

To the researchers the results of the study "clearly demonstrate that all too little information is available on the potential of the mentally retarded child for acquiring greater proficiency in motor skills." Certainly systematic study is needed, not only of conditions under which motor learning may be effectively accomplished, but also of what improved motor proficiency means in the lives of these children.

Some preliminary measurements

THE BEGINNING TEACHER

By WARD S. MASON

FOR every 10 people in the United States who entered teaching last year, only 8 planned to come back for a second year, and only 5 planned to make it a continuous lifetime career.

Such turnover among beginning teachers—nearly 20 percent after the first year and 50 percent by the end of 5 years—is one of the findings emerging from the preliminary analysis of a current Office of Education study. This is high turnover, even for the teaching profession, which is accustomed to counting its annual losses—including those from death and retirement—at something like 7½ percent. It is high for a Nation that sees its enrollments constantly on the rise, and last fall before school opened counted its shortage of qualified teachers for elementary and secondary schools at 135,000.

What is back of heavy losses among beginners? This is one of the questions that last spring prompted the Office to send a questionnaire to approximately 10 percent of the country's first-year teachers, reaching into every State of the Union and into schools of every size. It inquired into the teacher's qualifications, his economic status, his working conditions, his job satisfaction, and his commitment to a teaching career. The figures given here are based on the first 4,065 replies—only about half the number that will substantiate the final report, but fairly representative nonetheless.

The replies indicate a rate of loss even higher than the Office researchers expected. Of the 1,523 men in the preliminary sample, 18 percent aren't going back for a second year. In terms of long range career plans, only 28 percent plan to make classroom teaching their life's work, but another 49 percent plan to remain in education although they hope eventually to move out of the classroom into "some other area." For the 2,542 women, the corresponding percentages are 15, 14, and 8. Fifty-five percent of the women, however, despite plans to leave teaching for homemaking, say they want to return to it some day. For the group as a whole, only 42 percent plan to stay with education for good.

No assessment of the importance of salary as a factor in such losses is available from this preliminary data. However, the figures on average salaries are perhaps instructive. The median salary for all beginning teachers in 1956–57 was $3,600. Some parts of the country set higher records, as the map below shows, but most did not do as well.

Lack of preparation for the job also may help to explain why so many beginners are dissatisfied with teaching. Twenty percent have only emergency or substandard certificates; and 13 percent of the others spend part of their time teaching subjects or grades they are not qualified to teach. A bachelor's degree is usually considered a minimum requirement for teachers, but 14 percent of the beginners last year did not have one. In elementary schools, where the teacher shortage is greatest, the proportion of beginners without degrees is highest: 21 percent in the Nation as a whole; 71 percent in school districts enrolling fewer than 300 pupils; and 61 percent in the Plains States, where one-room schools are still numerous. In the secondary schools, 4 percent have no degree.

In the sample that yields the foregoing information, women predominate, about 6 to 4. Most of the men (65 percent) are married; most of the women (56 percent) are single. Median age of the men is 25.5 years; of the women, 22.8. Most of the men (68 percent) teach in secondary schools; most of the women (71 percent), in elementary.

A preliminary report of the study is now being prepared and will be published as Circular No. 510 shortly after the first of the year.

In 1956–57 the average salary for beginning teachers was highest in the West, lowest in the South (preliminary report)

Dr. Mason, Office of Education specialist in teacher personnel statistics, conducted the study he describes here, with the assistance of survey statisticians Robert J. Dressel and Robert R. Bain.

In its Study Commission

the Council of Chief State School Officers has

A Policy-Developing Agency

By FRED F. BEACH, *chief, State School Administration*

WHEN the Council of Chief State School Officers at their annual meeting in 1942 created a Study Commission, no one could foresee that it would become one of the most significant educational policy-developing agencies in the Nation. Although the original purpose of the Commission was to furnish information for the annual meeting of the chief State school officers, this purpose did not remain paramount for long. The Study Commission soon focused its attention on developing the underlying philosophy and basic principles and policies that should guide State school systems. The time had come for crystallizing the experiences of the 48 State educational systems into most desirable practices.

Taking advantage of its strategic position, the Study Commission began to perform this task. Because of its composition and its relationship with the Office of Education and State departments of education, the Commission has developed policies and principles and pointed out desirable practices to guide State school systems that would have been extremely difficult to obtain in any other way.

AT ITS NINTH annual workshop, held at Gatlinburg, Tenn., Nov. 17–22, the Study Commission of the Council of Chief State School Officers had the services of seven consultants from the Office of Education. Five served on the four project committees:

ON INSTRUCTION
John R. Ludington, *chief*
Secondary Schools
Helen K. Mackintosh, *chief*
Elementary Schools

ON CURRICULUM
Edith S. Greer, *specialist for curriculum coordination*

ON GUIDANCE
Frank R. Sievers, *chief*
Guidance and Student Personnel

ON SCHOOL FINANCE
Clayton D. Hutchins, chief
School Finance

The other two were E. Glenn Featherston, *acting assistant commissioner, Division of State and Local School Systems*, who was general working consultant; and Fred F. Beach, *chief, State School Administration*, who acted as secretary to the Study Commission.

Organization

The pattern of organization of the Study Commission especially fits it for policy development and for obtaining the solutions to crucial nationwide problems in State school administration. It is composed of 48 members—one from each State. Each member is designated by his chief State school officer to represent the State department of education and to serve as liaison between the department and the Study Commission. Members are usually deputies or assistant chief State school officers with overall departmental responsibilities. They gather information for meetings and workshops, prepare interim reports, bring back to the Commission suggestions and evaluations obtained from their departments, and, when necessary, obtain approval of their chief State school officer for any materials to be cleared or actions to be taken. In one way or another, every staff member of every State department of education sooner or later participates in the Study Commission's work.

General leadership of the Study Commission is held by a Planning Committee of nine members, appointed by the president of the Council of Chief State School Officers, in consultation with the Board of Directors. Terms are for 3 years, with 3 new members appointed each year, thus insuring an experienced majority at all times.

The Planning Committee maps out the ongoing program of the Study Commission and is responsible for the general direction of its work. It determines the projects to be undertaken, outlines regular and special procedures for conducting them, selects a chairman and consultants for each project, and makes detailed plans for national workshops. All its activities, of course, are subject to the approval of the Council of Chief State School Officers, of which it is an instrument.

To carry on its work, the Planning Committee meets at least twice a year. One meeting is held during the regular workshop of the Study Commission and the other is held in the early spring—usually in Washington, D. C.—to plan the program for the year ahead. Members of the Planning Committee conduct interim activities that are necessary to further the progress of policy-developing projects. Generally, members are also designated to serve as the chairmen of important policy-developing projects.

The executive secretary

The executive secretary of the Council works closely with the Study Commission. The Commission relies on him to (1) furnish consultative services; (2) assist in keeping individual chief State school officers informed on the activities of the Study Commission and encouraging them to give their active support to

its projects; (3) act as liaison between the Council and the Study Commission; (4) arrange for publication and distribution of reports and statements from the Commission's work.

Role of Office of Education

Between the Study Commission and the Office of Education a happy cooperative relationship exists that is certainly beneficial to each and to education generally. This relationship, which has grown ever since the Study Commission was established, has been a major factor in recent advances in State school administration. Each agency conducts those activities which it is particularly qualified to perform and which are essential in the development of the most forward-looking policies and principles. An Office of Education staff member, designated by the Commissioner of Education, serves as secretary to the Planning Committee and the Study Commission and as liaison with the Office of Education.

The staff of the Office of Education are invited by the Planning Committee to contribute to the goals of the Study Commission in many ways. Regardless of the project being undertaken—and the activities of the Commission extend through the gamut of education—the Office of Education specialist whose field is involved is usually invited by the Commission to perform many services. Most of the policy-developing projects are preceded by a nationwide study of the various policies, procedures, and practices that prevail in the several States. Such information is considered necessary as a basis for evaluation and for determining practices that are most desirable. The Office of Education specialist involved in a particular project conducts the necessary background status study and provides other information necessary for the Study Commission's use; moreover, he continues as a consultant until the policy document is finally completed and edited, and approved by the Study Commission for consideration by the Council of Chief State School Officers.

Project procedures

The project procedures now followed by the Study Commission are a result of 16 years of tested experience. For the first several years, the Study Commission functioned almost wholly through its Planning Committee, which met 2 or 3 times annually to plan studies, draft reports, and agree on recommendations. Since 1949, however, the Study Commission has accomplished the major part of its program through annual 1-week workshops of members and invited consultants, and through periodic meetings of the Planning Committee and special committees set up to carry out specific projects.

The successful methods now in use may well be classified as inventions. Procedures are designed to bring to bear on each project the best thinking of recognized authorities in the area under study. Although the process allows for flexibility and varies with different projects, the typical procedure involves a number of steps.

For each project to be undertaken, the Planning Committee usually selects a special committee of a chairman and three members well qualified in the area under study. Membership of this committee is augmented by Study Commission members who elect to serve and by a number of State department of education specialists outside the Commission whom the Planning Committee invites to participate. All together they make a committee of between 12 and 20 persons.

This project committee works intensively, usually within the period of two annual workshops, planning the projects, preparing materials needed to accomplish the task, and cooperating with the Office of Education in completing a status study. Once the status study is available and other materials are assembled, the project committee, working at the national workshop, evaluates the different practices of the 48 States and prepares a preliminary policy report. This report constitutes a crystallization of the most desirable proven practices in the Nation in the project area.

The preliminary report is then submitted to the entire Study Commission workshop for suggestions and modification. Following this review, the report is revised, if indicated, and a copy is sent to each chief State school officer for careful examination and for testing of the proposals by his staff.

The interval between two annual workshops affords committee members the time and the opportunity to prepare any additional materials that are needed to further the completion of the project. Taking advantage of the results of interim committee work and the suggestions of chief State school officers and their staffs, the project committee and the Study Commission carefully rework the report at the second national workshop.

Again it is submitted to the Study Commission. The action the Commission takes at this time determines whether the report is to be approved as prepared; is to be submitted, with minor modifications, to the Council; or must undergo major modification requiring further study. In the last case, the report may again follow the same steps that it took at the end of the first workshop.

If approved by the Study Commission, the report is edited by a small group appointed by the Planning Committee and is then submitted to the Council. A copy is sent to each chief State school officer for examination prior to the next annual meeting of the Council.

At its annual meeting the Council formally considers the report. The report may be adopted as submitted, or it may be merely received by the Council. Major policy statements adopted by the Council are usually published and serve as basic guides for State school systems.

Advantages

One of the most significant implications of this process is the decrease in the time lag between the identification of desirable practice and its adoption and use in a State. The policies of the Council have the advantage of having been developed

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The forming of a National Commission brightens the hope

FOR A MORE LITERATE NATION

By AMBROSE CALIVER
Assistant to the Commissioner and chief, Adult Education Section

THE National Commission for Adult Literacy is a non-Government agency established by the Adult Education Association of the U. S. A. Its purpose is to stimulate action at local, State, and national levels to give every adult an opportunity to acquire the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Its chairman is Murray D. Lincoln, president of the Nationwide Insurance Co. and president of CARE; its vice chairman, Paul A. Witty, professor of education at Northwestern University, who helped to develop the Army's literacy program during World War II.

ITS BACKGROUND. In the early thirties a National Literacy Committee under the chairmanship of Ray Lyman Wilbur, then Secretary of the Interior, gave incentive to the development of the WPA literacy education program. Since that time, however, the Nation has made no concerted and sustained attack on adult illiteracy. Many agencies have been concerned but efforts in general have been sporadic. The Armed Forces literacy program was significant, but it was limited and of an emergency nature. Those responsible for it conducted it as a necessity, but they always felt that it was a civilian responsibility.

The Office of Education for years has recognized this responsibility and, within the limits of its resources, has attempted to meet it. During the 1930's it lent staff members for part-time service in developing the WPA educational program. Since, it has made studies, held conferences, and issued publications on the problem: and during the past 5 or 6 years it has cooperated with the Adult Education Association through its Committee and Section on Fundamental and Literacy Education. Through these efforts the National Commission for Adult Literacy has come into being.

ITS PROBLEM. We have a free, universal, and compulsory educational system, but illiteracy among adults still blots our record. The problem has always been serious, but with today's scientific and technological advances it becomes even more so. If we are to keep up with the advances, if we are to maintain our democracy, we must have a literate citizenry.

Our last decennial census counted nearly 10 million adult citizens 25 years of age and over who were functionally illiterate, i. e., had had fewer than 5 years of schooling (approximately 4 million native whites, 3 million foreign-born whites, and 3 million Negroes). The count revealed a national problem, for practically every State in the Union has large numbers of illiterates. A high proportion of them are concentrated in the ages over 45, but every year about 60,000 functional illiterates reach age 14.

Illiteracy is decreasing gradually, but not rapidly enough to meet increasing demands upon adults. No longer can we afford to wait upon time either to eliminate the adult illiterate or to bring us a generation of adults free of illiteracy. The nature of the problem is such that we must seek a solution *now*—and seek it in a coordinated nationwide effort.

ITS PURPOSES. To spark such an effort, the National Commission for Adult Literacy has been formed, with the following purposes:

1. To alert the American public, particularly its opinion-forming leaders, to the magnitude and importance of the problem and the need for constructive action.

2. To collect and study facts about adult illiteracy, and about programs now working to correct it.

3. To stimulate factfinding, research, and pilot programs.

4. To build public opinion so that all communities will include literacy education in their regular educational program.

5. To stimulate more action—perhaps new types of action—against adult illiteracy.

In achieving its objectives the Commission expects to be promotional rather than operational. The program it has designed includes the following objectives:

1. Identifying and highlighting the problem among the various population groups and in the different regions, through collecting and disseminating facts.

2. Calling attention, through its own publications and the mass media, to the effects of illiteracy on our Nation.

3. Enlisting the support of Federal officials, governors, mayors, school superintendents, businessmen, labor leaders, and officials of organizations.

4. Sponsoring national, regional, and local conferences.

5. Preparing and distributing newsletters, leaflets, pamphlets, and study guides.

6. Establishing a clearinghouse of information on literacy education.

7. Sponsoring fact gathering and research on such subjects as good programs now in operation, motivation of potential learners, instructional materials, methods of teaching, retention, organization of programs, and continuity of interest.[1]

The Commission expects to achieve

[1] In keeping with the promotional nature of the Commission, most of the factfinding and research will be done on a contractual basis, by consultants and specialists borrowed from universities, colleges, school systems, industry, government, foundations, and voluntary agencies. Some of these will be employed by the Commission for brief periods; in other cases contractual arrangements will be made with the institutions, school system, or agency.

its purposes with a small staff, including an executive director and an associate director, and expects to do so within 3 years, with a budget of $450,000. Plans are underway now for a financial campaign, with headquarters in Washington, to raise the funds by 1958.

ITS LIAISON WITH THE OFFICE. The Commission plans to maintain close liaison with the Office of Education in the reasonable hope that the Office will carry on the work when the Commission concludes its activities. For the Office of Education has recently recognized its obligations to all age groups, in all stages of development, by establishing the Adult Education Section. One of the major concerns of this Section is fundamental and literacy education. It interprets literacy education in the same way as the Commission does: As a tool for providing those rudiments of communication that man needs in his simple day-to-day functions. By working together and cooperating with all other interested agencies, the Commission and the Office can help to diffuse literacy and its effective use more widely throughout the adult population, and arouse popular enthusiasm for the concept of literacy as a rich, positive thing, conducive to lifelong and life-related learning. These are essential accomplishments in an economy that is becoming increasingly inhospitable to the illiterate.

They are essential also in terms of our need for more scientific and technological manpower. Among our illiterates there is about the same proportion of intelligent persons as in the general population. If they are properly trained, they can provide a source of supporting manpower, both as semiskilled and skilled technicians; some may even be potential scientists and technologists. They can contribute further to the manpower pool by providing an atmosphere at home and in community more conducive to intellectual activity and the holding power of the schools.

The enterprise to which the Commission commits itself should appeal to all persons who are interested in the welfare of the Nation, and who believe that our social and economic progress and the maintenance of our free Republic rests upon an enlightened citizenry. The kind of decisions we most need today require our citizens to understand many issues. Since they can gain understanding only if they are literate, we must do what we can to make them so. The needs of a world in which we seek to lead and in which half of the people are illiterate, demand that we develop a "crash program" of literacy education. This is the task the Commission undertakes. This is the task for which it solicits help.

MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL COMMISSION ON LITERACY

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EUGENE CARSON BLAKE, *president, National Council of Churches, Philadelphia*

ELBERT W. BURR, *manager of personnel development, Monsanto Chemical Co., St. Louis*

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WILLARD E. GIVENS, *vice president, Senior Citizens of America, Washington, D. C.*

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PAUL A. WITTY, *professor of education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.*

Study Commission

Continued from page 12

cooperatively by theorists and practitioners concerned with the problems in their day-to-day activities, and represent the composite judgment of Study Commission members, chief State school officers, staffs of the State departments of education, and Office of Education consultants. The process facilitates greatly the incorporation of these principles into the fabric of State systems of education.

Major policy statements

Among the major policy statements already adopted by the Council and published by them are these:

- *Our System of Education*—The overall policy guide for the improvement of education programs throughout the Nation, with particular attention to responsibilities of State departments of education for such improvement.
- *The State Department of Education*—The basic principles and policies for a State department's legal status, its functions, and the organization of its service areas.
- *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education and Health for School Health Services*—Fundamental policies which determine the relationships of education and health agencies at local and State levels, including desirable practices for improving school health services.
- *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Teacher Education*—Basic principles relating to the role of the State department of education in the improvement of teacher education and certification.
- *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for School Plant Services*—Basic policies and principles that determine the leadership role of the State department of education in planning, conducting, and evaluating a comprehensive program for suitable school plants. Includes policies that should govern relationships among State and local agencies in this field.
- *Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Pupil Transportation*—A policy document emphasizing the functions and services of the State department of education and its relationships with other agencies in the development and improvement of the State's program for pupil transportation.

The ongoing program

The ongoing program of the Study Commission seeks the development of an authoritative body of basic policies and principles that denote most desirable practice in State school administration. The rapid growth and rise in leadership of State departments of education, particularly in the last decade, have brought a host of new problems. As a consequence, high priority is being given to problems arising from the new role of State departments of education in the drama of American education. At the national workshop in Gatlinburg, November 17–22, 1957, four project committees attacked four such major problems: State department of education responsibilities for (1) instruction services; (2) curriculums of the schools; (3) guidance counseling and pupil personnel services; and (4) school finance and business management services.

Future plans are focused on the organization and services of the State department of education and on the department's role in planning and developing the State program of education. They include projects on internal organization and staffing; public relations; educational research; relationships with colleges and universities, lay and professional organizations, State legislatures, and Federal, State, and local agencies.

The Study Commission has a sound record of achievement. In 16 years it has become firmly established as a vital force in American education.

Over Three Million in College

FOUR percent more students this year than last have swelled total enrollments in institutions of higher education past the 3 million mark, although our college-age population is at its lowest in 25 years. The number attending college for the first time is up 3 percent over last year, totaling 745,000.

This estimate of the 1957 college enrollment moves in the direction of realizing an Office of Education projection that college attendance will double in the next 13 years. With larger and larger proportions of our young people going to college, and with the influx of both "war" and "post-war babies" on the campus, college enrollments are likely to reach 3.5 million by 1960 and at least 6 million in another 10 years.

The Office arrived at its estimates for fall 1957 by tabulating the first 65 percent of the returns to requests for enrollment data sent to 1,891 colleges and universities in continental United States, its territories and possessions. Last year's estimates, similarly arrived at, were accurate to within 0.3 percent for full enrollments and 1.6 percent for first-time.

Final report by the Office on enrollments in colleges and universities for the academic year 1957–58 will probably show higher figures than the final fall enrollment. In the past, the Office has found the academic-year enrollment to be at least 10 percent greater than the total fall enrollment.

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FINANCIAL AID FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS: GRADUATE, by *Richard C. Mattingly.* 1957. 151 pp. 50 cents. (Bul. 1957, No. 17)

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(Request single copies from Publications Inquiry Unit, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.)

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DIRECTORY OF COUNSELOR TRAINERS, INDIVIDUALS ENGAGED IN PREPARING PROFESSIONAL GUIDANCE WORKERS, by *Royce E. Brewster.* September 1957. 30 pp.

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MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL, by *Marjorie Johnston.* Reprint from *School Life.* June 1957. 2 pp.

STATISTICS ON PUPIL TRANSPORTATION, 1955–56, by *E. Glenn Featherston.* September 1957. 1 p. (Cir. No. 507)

TEACHING HOMEMAKING AS A CAREER IN THE NATION'S SCHOOLS. A leaflet. 4 pp. (Mics. 3528)

USEFUL REFERENCES FOR TEACHERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, prepared by *Marjorie Johnston.* September 1957. (Cir. No. 509)

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